DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 315 694 CG 022 273

AUTHOR	Morse, Carol Lynn; And Others
TITLE	Human Relations in a Changing World.
INSTITUTION	American School Counselor Association. Alexandria, VA.; ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services, Ann Arbor, Mich.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	90
CONTRACT	RI88062011
NOTE	37p.; In: Elementary School Counseling in a Changing World, see CG 022 263.
AVAILABLE FROM	ERIC/CAPS, 2108 School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259.
PUB TYPE	Information Analyses - ERIC Information Analysis Products (071)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Change; Counseling Techniques; Counselor Role; Elementary Education; *Elementary School Students; Human Relations; Interpersonal Competence; Interpersonal Relationship; *Peer Relationship; *School Counseling; *School Counselors
IDENTIFIERS	Adult Child Relationship

ABSTRACT

This 10th chapter in "Elementary School Counseling in a Changing World" describes ways that counselors can build positive relationships among children and between children and adults. It asserts that elementary school counselors play a major part in developing and maintaining a healthy social climate for children. Four journal articles are included. "Effects of DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised on Children's Social Skills and Self-Esteem" by Carol Lynn Morse, Jerry Bockoven, and Alex Bettesworth describes a study conducted to examine the effects of the DUSO (Developing Understanding of Self and Others)-2 treatments on children's self-esteem and social skills levels 6 months after exposure to the programs. "Peer Counseling: More on an Emerging Strategy" by Alan Downe, H. A. Altmann, and Ione Nysetvold looks at the use of peer counseling in the elementary school setting. "Successful Training for Elementary and Middle School Peer Helpers" by Chari Campbell examines the characteristics of successful peer helper programs and considers the need to tailor peer helper programs to the individual school setting. "Classroom Use of Selected Children's Books: Prosocial Development in Young Children" by Mary Trepanier and Jane Romatowski describes a study which involved the reading of selected children's books and the use of planned critical thinking questions by kindergarten and first-grade classroom teachers during regularly scheduled story-telling times. The chapter concludes with a set of issues for elementary school counselors to consider about human relations in a changing world. (NB)

ED315694

CG022273

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

CHAPTER 10

HUMAN RELATIONS IN A CHANGING WORLD

Children need to support each other in a world filled with conflict. They must learn and practice the interpersonal skills necessary for their present lives and also for the demands of peer pressure in adolescence. Elementary school counselors must find ways both to challenge and support youngsters in the area of human relations. Chapter 10 describes ways that counselors can build positive relationships among children and between children and adults.

The topics covered in this chapter are as follows:

1. The effects of the DUSO program on children's social skills
2. Peer counseling programs to foster interpersonal relations
3. Use of children's books to foster social development

Each of the procedures discussed in Chapter 10 offer counselors and teachers ways to improve human relation skills in children. As Mary Trepanier and Jane Romatowski note in their article on using books to promote social development,

> The elementary classroom is a busy marketplace where ideas and values are constantly exchanged. In this marketplace the teacher has the opportunity to use the interactions of children with peers, with adults, and with the curriculum for promoting cognitive and social growth. The creative use of such interactions and of the curriculum can increase children's awareness of the perspective of others and promote more altruistic behavior.

The main goal of this chapter is to show that elementary school counselors play a major part in developing and maintaining a healthy social climate for

children. This aspect of counselors' work is important in part because children's relations with teachers, peers, and family affect learning and achievement. In addition, counselors who strive to improve children's interpersonal skills are helping to insure that the 1990s and beyond will be years in which society will move forward on the basis of cooperative efforts among the nation's citizens. Finally, the work of elementary school counselors in this area will likely help to produce citizens who strive for productive relations across cultures and nations.

Effects of DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised on Children's Social Skills and Self-Esteem

Carol Lynn Morse
Jerry Bockoven
Alex Bettesworth

With the 1970s came the ubiquitous affective education programs for children. Some, like the Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) program (Dinkmeyer, 1970) have been revised (DUSO-R) for the 1980s (Dinkmeyer & Dinkmeyer, 1982) and widely disseminated. More than 150,000 DUSO kits were sold during a 10-year period (American Guidance Service, 1982). The few empirical studies on DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised provide some evidence of their effectiveness and shed some light on the question, "Do these programs provide anything of value for children?" There are no follow-up studies, however, evaluating the long-lasting (i.e., temporal) effects of the DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised programs even though the need for such studies is recognized as important in the literature (Elardo & Elardo, 1976). Counselors and teachers who are investing precious time and resources in DUSO-type programs would benefit from such studies by using the results to guide their use as well as their expectations of the materials.

We undertook this study as an attempt to remedy the deficiency of follow-up information in the literature by examining the temporal effects of DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised, both of which are designed for second- through sixth-grade students (DUSO-1 and DUSO-1-Revised are intended for kindergarten through second-grade students). Specifically, the question we addressed was: What are the effects of DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised treatment on children's self-esteem and social skill levels, 6 months following exposure to these programs?

DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised

DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised have been compared in detail by Bockover and Morse (1986). Essentially, both versions have similar goals for helping children: (a) to understand themselves better, (b) to develop positive self-images, (c) to enhance awareness of the relationship between themselves and others, and (d) to recognize their own goals and needs (Dinkmeyer & Dinkmeyer, 1982). The changes in DUSO-2-Revised are considerable and involve all aspects of the

kit—teachers manuals, audiocassettes of songs and stories, discussion pictures, activity suggestions, role-playing activities, career activities, puppet activities, and discussion guide cards. These revisions may rest more on impressions of those who have used the program, important though such feedback may be, than on empirical evidence.

Previous Research

Several authors have provided summaries of empirical studies investigating the effectiveness of the original and revised DUSO programs (Bockover & Morse, 1986; Elardo & Elardo, 1976; Medway & Smith, 1978; Morse & Bockover, 1987). In general, this research has indicated the positive effects of DUSO-type training on measures of affect (Eldridge, Barcikowski, & Witmer, 1973), self-reliance and feelings of belonging (Koval & Hales, 1972), self-concept (Stacey & Rust, 1986), and behavior (Wantz & Recor, 1984). These encouraging findings are moderated, however, by a number of other studies that failed to discover results in favor of DUSO (Allen, 1976; Marshall, 1973; McGoran, 1976; Quain, 1976; Terry, 1976).

Oregon DUSO-2 Research Studies Series

Because the previous studies on DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised had addressed only the most basic research questions, we designed the Oregon DUSO-2 Research Studies Series to explore the effects of these affective education curricula in more detail. We hoped that by investigating these programs systematically and sequentially, information about their short-term and long-range effects could be provided for consumers. The initial study in this series (Bockover & Morse, 1986) was designed to compare the effects of DUSO-2, DUSO-2-Revised, and attention-only control groups on measures of self-esteem (Battle, 1981) and social skills (Thorpe, Clark, & Tiegs, 1953). The results of this investigation indicated that following an 8-week treatment period (3 hours per week), children exposed to DUSO-2-Revised made significantly greater gains with respect to general, social, and total self-esteem than did those given mere attention via entertainment activities such as art, crafts, and stories. Furthermore, it was found that children assigned to the DUSO-2 group made significantly greater gains in terms of their awareness of expected social standards than did children in the attention-only group. In this article we provide the results of a second research project of the Oregon DUSO-2-Revised Research Studies Series.

Method

Procedures

We attempted to contact the 26 children, aged 7 to 9 years, included in the initial investigation 6 months after their involvement. We were unable to contact 2 of these children, but the remaining 24 agreed (via their parents) to participate in this study and complete the same instruments under similar testing conditions as the original study.

Instruments

As in the original study, the social adjustment section of the California Test of Personality (CTP) (Thorpe et al., 1953) and the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI) (Battle, 1981) were used in the follow-up study. Both are established as valid and reliable instruments (Battle, 1977, 1980, 1981; Coopersmith, 1967; Thorpe et al., 1953). The social adjustment section of the CTP includes 6 subunits: Social Standards, Social Skills, Freedom from Antisocial Tendencies, Family Relations, School Relations, and Community Relations (Thorpe et al., 1953). The total self-esteem score of the CFSEI is subdivided into four categories: General, Social, Academic, and Parental. The CFSEI also includes a lie scale, which purports to measure the child's tendency to respond to the questionnaire in socially desirable ways (Battle, 1981).

Data Analysis and Hypothesis

The results of the initial study in the Oregon DUSO-2-Revised Research Studies Series were obtained by comparing the average gain scores (pretest to posttest) for the three randomly assigned groups (i.e., DUSO-2, DUSO-2-Revised, attention only). In this second-phase study, these three groups were compared using the average gain scores measured from pretest to follow-up testing (i.e., 6 months later). This procedure made it possible to compare the two studies and organize the results into three categories of temporal effects: (a) maintenance effects—significant group differences observed in the initial study that were maintained in the follow-up study, (b) latent effects—group differences not observed in the initial study that emerged as significant in the follow-up study, and (c) diminished effects—significant group differences observed in the initial study that were not obtained in the results of the follow-up study. We hypothesized that differences among these three kinds of temporal effects would be found in the present study.

Because this is the first follow-up study of its kind on the DUSO-2 or DUSO-2-Revised programs and because the sample size was somewhat small

($N = 24$), we decided to relax the traditional .05 significance level to .10 for the three group comparisons. (Support for this procedure has been documented by Howell, 1982.) The criteria for significance for two-group (post hoc) comparisons using Fisher's least significant difference method (Fisher, 1949) was kept at the .05 level, however.

Results and Discussion

The overall results of this study yielded three latent and maintenance effects and one diminished effect (see Table 1). These findings support this type of categorization and in this way corroborate the hypothesis.

Table 1
Significant Group Differences on Gains Made Pretest to Posttest Compared to Gains Made Pretest to Follow-Up

Dependent Measure	Gains Made Pretest To Posttest[a]	Gains Made Pretest To Follow-Up[b]	Temporal Effect
CTP Social Standards subscale	DUSO-2 Attention-only	DUSO-2 Attention-only	Maintenance
CFSEI Total Self-Esteem score	DUSO-2-Revised Attention-only	DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised Attention-only	Maintenance and latent
CFSEI General Self-Esteem subscale	DUSO-2-Revised Attention-only	No significant results	Diminished
CFSEI Social Self-Esteem subscale	DUSO-2-Revised Attention-only	DUSO-2-Revised Attention-only	Maintenance
CTP Total Social Adjustment score	No significant results	DUSO-2 Attention-only	Latent
CFSEI Lie subscale[c]	No significant results	Attention-only > DUSO-2-Revised	Latent

Note. Findings based on post-hoc analysis using Fisher's (1949) least significant difference method, $p < .05$.
[a]Initial study.
[b]Present study.
[c]Higher scores on the CFSEI Lie Scale indicate a greater tendency to answer test items in a socially desirable way.

Maintenance effects were evident for the DUSO-2 group in relation to changes in the child's knowledge of socially acceptable standards. In addition, the DUSO-2-Revised group "maintained" significantly higher change scores than the attention-only control group in terms of overall self-esteem and the child's feelings of confidence in social settings (CFSEI Social Self-Esteem). Taken by themselves, these results suggest a distinction between the two kits. The maintenance effects of the DUSO-2-Revised curriculum seems to display a penchant toward influencing the affective component of a child's functioning (i.e., feelings of confidence and self-esteem), whereas the DUSO-2 kit's effects tend toward the cognitive aspect (i.e., "knowledge" of social standards [Thorpe et al., 1953]).

Only one diminished effect was found; it involved the CFSEI General Self-Esteem subscale (defined as the child's feeling of confidence not attached to any particular situation [Battle, 1981]). The significantly higher gain scores of the DUSO-2-Revised group over the attention-only group found in the initial study were not found in the pretest to follow-up period. This result may indicate that the initial effects either disappeared or that these vague feelings of confidence attached themselves to a specific situational context (i.e., social self-esteem). Whatever the case, these results raise the question of the difference between the Total Self-Esteem score (which is the aggregate of the subscales) and the CFSEI General Self-Esteem subscale. Clearly there is no difference in effects, however, the author of the CFSEI is unclear (if not silent) as to the specific distinction between these two scores. Future research in this area (i.e., factor analysis of the subscales and total scores on this measure) would promote further understanding of the effects of DUSO-2-Revised.

Latency effects were evident for both kits. The DUSO-2-Revised group gain scores were significantly lower than the attention-only control group's gain scores on the CFSEI Lie scale in the pretest to follow-up period. A lower score on this subscale indicates that the child is answering the questionnaire in an "honest" fashion and is not yielding to the perceived socially desirable answers. This result would suggest that the DUSO-2-Revised group developed a greater sense of self-autonomy and independence over time than the attention-only control group. Again, it seems that the DUSO-2-Revised kit tends to yield higher scores on the measures that include an affective component.

The DUSO-2 group's latency effects surfaced on the CFSEI Total Self-Esteem subscale and the CTP Social Adjustment Total score. The Social Adjustment scale on the CTP may be categorized as a self-report behavioral measure, whereas the CFSEI Self-Esteem subscale is clearly in the affective camp. This would suggest that although the original DUSO-2 curriculum may be seen as more effective in terms of changes in the cognitive-behavioral realm of social functioning, it does include some degree of affective efficacy.

One additional data treatment procedure involved subtracting the posttest score obtained for each subject from the scores obtained at the time of follow-up. This procedure yielded a gain score (posttest to follow-up) for each participant. No significant differences were found, however, among groups, thus indicating that none of the groups made significant gains or losses in terms of self-esteem or social skill levels between the posttest and follow-up period.

Conclusion

Given the findings of this study, it is somewhat lamentable that previous studies of the 1970 DUSO curriculum did not include follow-up designs such as this one. If the authors of DUSO-R had the advantage of such information when considering whether to retain, expand, or exclude components of the DUSO curriculum, they might have enhanced the likelihood of creating a package that could have influenced all three of the vital components of social functioning (i.e., cognitive, behavioral, affective). As it stands, however, the DUSO-2-Revised curriculum seems to focus primarily on the affective realm, which in and of itself is an important factor in helping children develop into healthy and happy adults.

These findings further suggest that present consumers of the DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised programs may do well to alter their group guidance practices in order to adjust for the weaknesses that may be inherent in either kit. This study points to the possibility that the DUSO-type programs may be imperfect tools for building a complete cognitive, affective, and behavioral structure for developing self-esteem and social skills with children. Counselors and teachers who are informed of the use, as well as the limitations, of these tools can use them more effectively in conjunction with other resources in helping children.

Specifically, consumers of the DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised kits may enhance the impact of these programs by providing supplemental resources designed to help children put the lessons into behavioral practice. In addition, those who exclusively use the DUSO-2-Revised curriculum may need to bolster areas of functioning related to children's beliefs and self-talk (i.e., cognitions) about themselves and others, whereas DUSO-2 users would do well to supplement areas related to their students' awareness and understanding of feelings. Possibilities for implementing these suggestions include using additional materials from other sources or created by the user, as well as using spontaneous comments tailored to help the students generalize the lessons to specific areas of functioning (i.e., cognitive, affective, behavioral). Also, because both kits offer a wide variety of program choices for each session, consumers may wish to focus on selecting the lessons that would balance the respective weaknesses of each program.

Finally, because of the latent effects found in this study, consumers would do well to caution themselves against making immediate judgments as to the effectiveness of the DUSO-2 and DUSO-2-Revised programs. It would seem that some aspects of these kits take time to influence students. Further studies assessing these latent effects would be a helpful contribution to the present understanding of these curricula.

References

Allen, R. (1976). The effects of DUSO upon the reported self-esteem of selected fifth grade subjects (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina, 1976). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 27*, 2066A.

American Guidance Service. (1982). *Developing understanding of self and others—revised*. Circle Pines, MN: Author.

Battle, J. (1977). A comparison of two self-report inventories. *Psychological Reports, 41*, 159–160.

Battle, J. (1980). The relationship between self-esteem and depression among high school students. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 51*, 157–158.

Battle, J. (1981). *Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory*. Seattle: Special Child Publications.

Bockoven, J., & Morse, C. (1986). A comparative study of the efficacy of the DUSO and DUSO-R on children's social skills and self-esteem. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 20*, 290–296.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: Freeman.

Dinkmeyer, D. (1970). *Developing understanding of self and others*. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Dinkmeyer, D., & Dinkmeyer, D., Jr. (1982). *Developing understanding of self and others, D-2* (rev. ed.). Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Elardo, P., & Elardo, R. (1976). A critical analysis of social development programs in elementary education. *Journal of School Psychology, 14*, 118–130.

Eldridge, M., Barcikowski, R., & Witmer, J. (1973). Effects of DUSO on the self-concepts of second-grade students. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 7*, 256–260.

Fisher, R. (1949). *The design of experiments*. Edinburgh, Scotland: Oliver & Boyd.

Howell, D. (1982). *Statistical methods for psychology*. Boston: Duxbury Press.

Koval, C., & Hales, L. (1972). The effects of DUSO guidance program and self-concepts on primary school children. *Child Study Journal, 2*, 57–61.

Marshall, P. (1973). Effective counselor uses of DUSO guidance materials. *Guidelines for Pupil Services, 12*, 20–23.

McGoran, S. (1976). *The effects of the DUSO I program on the self-concepts of first grade children*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Washington, Kent.

Medway, F., & Smith, R. (1978). An examination of contemporary elementary schools affective education programs. *Psychology in Schools, 15*, 260–268.

Morse, C., & Bockoven, J. (1987). The Oregon DUSO-R Research Studies Series: Integrating a children's social skills curriculum in a family education/counseling center. *Individual Psychology, 43*, 101–114.

Quain, J. (1976). Affective education: Teacher training for affective education; change in self-concept and affectivity in kindergarten children (Doctoral dissertation, St. Louis University, 1976). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 37*, 7604A.

Stacey, S., & Rust, J. (1986). Evaluating the effectiveness of the DUSO-1 (revised). *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 20*, 84–90.

Terry, B. (1976). The effects of the implementation of the DUSO kit on self concept and self achievement of third grade students (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina, 1976). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 37*, 2088A.

Thorpe, L., Clark, W., & Tiegs, E. (1953). *California Test of Personality*. Monterey, CA: McGraw-Hill.

Wantz, R., & Recor, R. (1984). Simultaneous parent-child group intervention. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 19*, 126–131.

Editor's Note: Readers may want to review *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, (1986), *20*, 290–296 for additional information on this research study.

Peer Counseling: More on an Emerging Strategy

Alan G. Downe
H. A. Altmann
Ione Nysetvold

Recently counselors at all levels of the helping profession have begun to use a relatively new concept known as *peer facilitation* or *peer counseling*. The proliferation of community self-help groups, client-to-client counseling programs within correctional and rehabilitative centers, and the vast array of burgeoning volunteer crisis-counseling programs testify to the overwhelming support accorded to strategies using lay counselors in lieu of professional practitioners. Brown (1974) attributed this growth in popularity to the rapid increase in demand for counseling services among contemporary North Americans and the shortage of professionally trained personnel available to render such services within the community.

Nowhere has the demand for counseling outstripped the supply of helping services to a greater degree than in the elementary school system, where professional counselors have often found themselves relegated to the level of traveling psychometricians and agents of occasional intervention. A strategy that offers the teacher, school counselor, or educational social worker an opportunity to increase accessibility of counseling services for students is needed. One such strategy is to train students to carry on a formal helping function within the school environment as peer counselors. In this article we examine directions in the "peer-helper" movement with special emphasis on its potential role in the elementary school.

Peer counseling is a process in which trained, supervised students are selected to help in the systematic facilitation of affective growth and the development of effective coping skills among other students. Of course, the notion of a student-to-student helping relationship in school settings is not new. Peer tutors have been employed extensively to facilitate academic performance throughout the history of education in the Western world (Anderson, 1976). It is a relatively recent phenomenon, however, that peer influence has been directed toward affective education and the provision of nonacademic, interpersonal helping activities. Since the mid-1970s, the principle of peer facilitation has become accepted as a valuable human resource for school counseling services.

Peer counseling strategies have been rather slow to catch on at the elementary school level, although in the elementary school counseling literature

interest has fluctuated for about 10 years. In an attempt to uncover some of the reasons for the low incidence of such programming in the elementary school setting, Jacobs, Masson, and Vass (1975) surveyed counselors in the state of West Virginia and asked them why they had been reluctant to implement programs that used the peer-helper approach. Four explanations were given by counselors for their reticence: (a) they did not know enough about it; (b) they lacked the time to train and supervise student counselors; (c) they thought they lacked skills needed to train and supervise; and (d) they did not have the support for such a program from teachers and administrators.

Despite the frequency and very real nature of these counselor's concerns, the incidence of peer counseling has continued to increase in elementary schools across North America. Inventive, insightful risk takers like Barbara Varenhorst (1974) and Jim Gumaer (1973, 1976) spurred the early development of this approach and demonstrated its validity in both secondary and elementary schools. Excellent new programs (Bowman & Myrick, 1980; Carr & Saunders, 1980; Myrick & Erney, 1978) for selecting, training, and involving peer counselors in helping activities have been made available for the schools. Attempts to evaluate peer counseling programs (McIntyre, Thomas, & Borgen, 1982) are providing validation for the success of the concept and building a reputation of respectability for the approach. As Donald Keat (1976) pointed out, "the age of peer help is now upon us" (p. 7).

Psychological Processes Involved in Interactions Among Peers

Before examining the specific applications of peer interaction to interpersonal helping relationships, school counselors may find it useful to look first at some of the psychological and behavioral processes considered to underlie the effectiveness of peer counselor activities. By understanding various aspects of the dynamic interplay between those psychological and behavioral factors that affect peer influence, it may be possible to achieve greater insight into the means through which effective peer helping relationships can be facilitated. Much of what occurs within a peer counseling relationship can be explained by the precepts of social learning theory.

Social Learning, Modeling, and the Interaction of Peers

Bandura's (1969, 1977) theory of social learning places special emphasis on the role played by vicarious processes inherent in much of a child's learned behavior. Drawing from Bandura's (1977) consideration of these processes, we suggest that the following four elements are involved in governing the learning by observation of children.

The child pays attention to the modeled behavior. For vicarious learning to occur, the attention of a child must be directed toward the behavioral stimulus and held there long enough for the behavior, its antecedents, and its consequences to be observed. Whether or not attention is paid to the stimulus can depend on its distinctiveness, the kind of affective reaction associated with it, and the child's perception of the functional value of the modeled behavior. Sensory and arousal characteristics of the observer will also influence the degree to which the stimulus is attended.

The child mentally retains the modeled behavior. After attending to the behavior stimulus, the child needs to maintain a cognitive representation of the modeled behavior. The degree to which retention occurs is influenced by the way the modeled behavior is coded and organized in the child's memory, as well as whether there has been an adequate opportunity for rehearsal of the behavior.

The child has the perceptual-motor capacity to reproduce the modeled behavior. Not all children can perform all the same behaviors. If a child attends to and retains a behavioral stimulus that cannot be imitated because of developmental or physical deficits, then vicarious learning cannot occur.

The child is motivated to reproduce the modeled behavior. An observed behavior will be performed by a child if the behavior is reinforced.

Each of these elements of the social learning process has its own special applicability to the relationship between peer counselors and the fellow students they try to help. The qualities of distinctiveness, positive affective valence, and functional valence are frequently present in the behavioral performance of valued peers so that conditions that facilitate attention to a modeling stimulus are readily provided by a peer-to-peer relationship. Cognitive coding and organization of behavior may be easiest to interpret when it is shared between persons of the same age, thereby increasing the likelihood that behavior performed by a peer will be retained and that vicarious learning can occur. The rehearsal of new behaviors, also important to the retention process, may often be carried out with less threat of inhibition in the presence of a trusted peer.

A third element of the social learning model requires the observer to have sufficient motor skills to be able to reproduce the remembered behavior at an appropriate time. Because the participants in peer-interactive relationships are more than likely at approximately equivalent levels of social, physical, and cognitive development, the potential for copying a model of the same age will probably be greater than if the behavior were to be performed by an adult with several more years of developmental experience and a more advanced repertoire of communicative and other skill behaviors. Finally, the desire to attain levels of status displayed by the peer model and to experience observed reinforcers provides the incentives and motivations inherent in the social learning process.

The relating of one peer to another thus provides all of the elements present in social learning. Because Bandura (1969) suggested that "an observer becomes empathetically aroused as a result of intuiting the experiences and affective states of another person" (p. 171), a relationship with an effective peer facilitator might direct empathic arousal toward appropriate and increasingly capable forms of behavioral change. We suggest that the dynamic effects of the peer helping process can be largely explained within the cognitive-behavioral framework advanced by social learning theory. The use of a social learning framework as a theoretical base for future research into the dynamics and outcomes of peer counseling relationships is recommended.

Roles for Peer Counselors

The trend in most elementary school peer counseling programs has been toward involving the students in a remedial, treatment-oriented model for the delivery of helping services. Whereas the trend among many high school peer-helper programs has been toward the development of individual counseling skills, most elementary school programs that we reviewed focus on training students to function in group settings, often as aides to the professional counselor or teacher who acts as a group leader.

Many problems have been addressed using this approach. Academic failure (Dineen, Clark, & Risley, 1977), low self-esteem (Carr & Saunders, 1980), and shyness (McCann, 1975) have been common targets for the elementary school peer counselor and are particularly appropriate because of their high degree of relevance to the learning process. Ethnic and race relations have also been dealt with effectively by numerous programs based on the concept of peer-to-peer helping relationships (Gumaer, 1973; Hoffman, 1976). Peer counseling has also been shown to be effective in addressing problems such as the transfer of students to a new school (Bogat, Jones, & Jason, 1980).

It is clear that peers are extremely well suited for filling a modeling role, and this concept has been applied to a wide range of classroom situations. Hoffman (1976), Edwards (1976), and Strom and Engelbrecht (1974), particularly, have emphasized the influence of peer facilitators in programs in which pupils served as models for effective communication behaviors, basic academic and social skills, and creative play. Children in these studies have proved to be effective role models for peers. In addition, because this modeling takes place in such a way that students are allowed the opportunity to observe and practice alternative behaviors under lifelike conditions, transfer of this learning to natural situations is also greatly enhanced.

Peer helpers also have an important role as a resource for interpersonal support. Varenhorst (1974) summarized the parameters of this supportive capacity when she pointed out that

> As a psychologist, I can care genuinely for Ralph (an isolated, alienated junior high school student), but I can't be his buddy, eat his lunch with him, walk home from school with him, or shoot baskets in his backyard. I know students as friends, but I can't go to class with them, walk in the hall with them, or be a close friend to all of them. These students need their peers, who will be their friends or be friendly or help them learn the skills to build their own friendship group. (p. 271)

Programs striving to achieve these goals in elementary schools have attempted to foster such sharing by placing peers in group counseling situations (Gumaer, 1976; Hoffman, 1976), recommending "buddy system" pairings (Varenhorst, 1974), establishing student-operated "drop-in centers" in the school (McCann, 1975), and providing orientation aids (Mastroianni & Dinkmeyer, 1980).

Some argument exists about the most appropriate term to use when describing the pupil-to-pupil helping process. Because the term *counselor* tends to conjure images of professional help, often with a specific treatment model, Anderson (1976) has favored using the term *peer facilitator* to avoid confusing parents and school administrators with inaccuracies about the helping process being used. For the same reasons, Jacobs et al. (1976) suggested terms such as *student aide, student helper,* and *peer helper*. We argue that the label attached to the individual trained for interpersonal helping is less important than the actual work performed, and that maintaining open lines of communication with administrators, teachers, and parents about the rationale and role of a peer counselor program will do more to guard against misunderstandings than will any particular terminology.

Selection of Peer Counselors

As a general rule, many peer counselor program coordinators have taken a rather cavalier attitude toward the identification and selection of prospective peer counselors in the elementary school classroom. Three commonly used criteria for choosing participants for peer counseling training include (a) similarity to targeted students, (b) the recommendation of a teacher or principal, and (c) psychometric assessment. No single criterion may be adequate for accurate selection in all situations; thus, certain features of each of these criteria must be considered.

The idea that simply because an individual is similar to others he or she can serve as a useful helping resource for them is not necessarily supported by some of the empirical evidence currently available. Bachman's (1975) research indicated that "similarity to subject" (p. 106) may be relatively inconsequential in terms of helper characteristics sought after by children needing help. More specifically, of the participants in Bachman's study who preferred to take their problems to peers, fewer than 10% did so because they believed that their friends were similar to them. Thus, choosing peer counselors simply because they are the same age as or at the same grade level as the targeted participant may be somewhat inadequate for providing consistently helpful resources for elementary school children.

Similarly, problems arise when the recommendations of adults are used as the sole criteria for choosing those best suited for training and involvement as peer facilitators. Although pupils selected as peer counselors on the basis of referrals from teachers and other school personnel often do make excellent helpers, this approach is sometimes confounded by the failure of the intuitive perceptions of helpfulness held by these adults to coincide with the facilitative qualities that appeal to members of the class. In trying to determine the individual most likely to be an adequate helper, teachers may equate helpfulness with prestige status within a classroom clique or subgroup, with academic achievement, or with high levels of appropriate child-adult behavior. These characteristics may not be highly valued by the student clientele.

What seems to be needed most is an assessment device that will aid in identifying those with the potential for making successful peer counselors. Not enough is now known, however, about the functional qualities of helpfulness in the elementary school or the means by which younger children perceive the helping relationship. Although an attempt has been made to construct a scale to measure facilitativeness, efforts have been directed toward standardizing it for populations of high school students only, and few field data are yet available as to concomitant levels of reliability and validity.

Sociometry as an Aid in the Selection Process

Techniques using a sociometric approach for the analysis of classroom social structure have acquired credibility in a wide range of applications (Northway & Weld, 1957). Basically, sociometric analysis involves the collection of data from participants regarding their preference for others with whom they would like to perform an important task. Such approaches might be particularly useful when applied to the selection of students capable of filling roles as peer counselors.

Lippitt and Gold (1959) examined the social structure of the classroom and its effect on the mental health of pupils. They found a very definite social power

structure characterized not only by consensus about who belongs where in the social hierarchy, but also by high structural stability throughout the school year. Furthermore, they demonstrated that the same children were not at the top and bottom of all social substructures, suggesting that just because a child stands out in one area, he or she cannot necessarily be considered as a class leader in others.

Gumaer (1973) applied sociometric methods to the selection of candidates for peer facilitator training. He suggested that by asking members of the class to indicate classmates to whom they would go with a personal problem it would be possible to tap the social structure for some indication of which individuals were perceived by their peers as being intrinsically helpful. In doing so, it would become possible to select prospectively successful peer counselors without having to resort to the opinion of a third party.

A practical example of Gumaer's techniques was supplied by McCann (1975), who selected candidates for peer counselor training and work at her elementary school. McCann asked children in a sixth-grade class to think of their classmates and write down the name of the one with whom they would feel most comfortable discussing a problem, to underline that name, and to write their own names on the same sheet of paper. The papers were collected and a tally was made of the number of selections received by each child in the class. A sociogram was constructed, with vectors pointing from each child to the classmate he or she had chosen. Prospective peer counselors were indicated as those who had been chosen by the greatest number of students and were thus central to a cluster of vectors on the sociogram.

Importance of Selection Procedures

Despite the rather cavalier attitude sometimes taken in choosing whom to train for peer-helper rules, the selection process is perhaps the most important determinant in the overall success of a program of peer help. Although sociogrammatic analyses have been used infrequently for the selection of elementary school peer counselors, as Gumaer (1976) suggested, they are a promising strategy for future applications in the classroom. Input from teachers and parents can be used to supplement classmates' perceptions of potentially helpful peers and to assess the capacity of prospective peer counselors to cope with additional stresses encountered in their role.

Training for Peer Counselors

Whereas the selection process is important, the training process is critical. Although we have long believed that too much attention is often paid to training novice counselors in individual skills (Mahon & Altmann, 1977), there is much

evidence to indicate the importance of a structured program for training persons for a formal helping role.

Of the peer counselor programs in the elementary schools that we have reviewed, all placed a fairly strong emphasis on the skill-training components of the program, although a wide range of training procedures was used. In most cases, training tended to be conducted in a small group that met with the professional counselor-coordinator on several occasions to discuss and practice specific helping skills.

The length of training and the number of skill-training sessions varied considerably from program to program. McCann (1975) met with her trainees for eight 1-hour weekly sessions, whereas Edwards (1976) held training sessions once daily during lunch recess for 10 days, and Hoffman (1976) engaged prospective peer group models in ten 1-hour sessions held on a weekly basis. Weekend retreats and workshop formats have been used with some success, especially with older children (Pyle, 1977). In one program reviewed, skill development was initiated in a single training session, but more advanced levels of performance were attained by meeting with peer facilitators immediately before and after each session with the target group (Weise, 1976).

In general, considerable variety seems to characterize the length and intensity of peer-counselor training in the elementary schools and seems closely related to the actual skills being taught, the purposes of the program, and the priorities of the program coordinator. Many peer-counselor training programs tend to be developed in a rather piecemeal fashion according to the biases of the person designing the program and the nature of the specific problems being addressed.

There is also considerable variety in the types of skills regularly imparted during training. Most programs seem to emphasize listening skills, with attending behavior stressed most strongly. In the peer-counselor training programs we reviewed, most curricula are designed to teach students how to reflect and paraphrase responses, as well as various means of describing and comparing affective feelings. Skills involving action-oriented strategies such as setting goals, giving advice, and contracting have been largely absent from many of the peer-counseling programs at the elementary school level. The absence of such skills suggests that peer counselors are intended to function largely as cathartic supports and effective listeners. Strategies engendering behavioral change are often left to the professional counselor or educator to design and implement.

One concern is the dearth of curricular provision for instructing helpers at the elementary school level in ethical considerations inherent in the paraprofessional helping process. Certainly the concept of filling facilitator roles with individuals incognizant of principles pertaining to confidentiality and other

ethical issues is one that ought to create some trepidation for anyone initiating and coordinating a program of peer-mediated help. Yet only Hoffman (1976) and a few other program designers seem to have included formal instruction on the ethics of counselors. We strongly recommend that students receiving peer-counselor training be exposed to concepts and dilemmas related to the maintenance of confidentiality, as well as to other ethical issues relevant to their roles in the general counseling program at their school.

Evaluation

Any new intervention suffers from inadequate evaluation, and peer counseling has been no exception. Those developing some peer programs have failed to conduct a needs assessment before implementation, thus using subjective comments as the main means of evaluation. We believe that three essential aspects of peer counseling are assessment of the self as helper (Brammer, 1979; Egan, 1975; Myrick & Erney, 1978), assessment of knowledge and skills used in the process (Myrick & Erney, 1978), and assessment of outcome (McIntyre et al., 1982). Although standardized instruments are often appropriate for evaluation, we support the notion of first identifying the needs in a specific setting and then developing instruments to determine whether the program has met those needs.

Evaluation of a peer counseling program can be simple and straightforward. Moreover, evaluation is necessary for the accountability and survival of peer counseling programs.

Peer Counseling: Promise in an Emerging Strategy

Although peer counseling is still a relatively new approach to helping in school settings, it offers some definite benefits for students and school professionals. The development of an effective peer-counseling program can provide a school with a cost-effective vehicle for broadening the range and variety of helping formats offered in a guidance or social work program. Furthermore, the additional support provided for the helping professional in the school setting, in terms of the roles adopted by peer counselors, allows the professional to focus on problems requiring his or her attention. Also, the use of peer-counselor programming allows a guidance service to address problems that would be less effectively handled in adult-child helping relationships.

Some definite benefits exist for the young person who becomes involved as a peer counselor. A sense of self-esteem, arising possibly from the prestige of being selected and the satisfaction of personal investment in the needs of others,

has been reported by students who act as peer counselors (Bowman & Myrick, 1980; Carr & Saunders, 1980; Keat, 1976). The child who experiences peer-counselor training develops not only an array of interpersonal skills that may transfer to other situations but also an awareness of the personal benefits from being a helper. A structured opportunity to broaden his or her social contacts in the school environment through involvement in peer counseling allows a student to experience an enriched and extensive extracurricular activity in addition to special attention from adults.

Of course, benefits are also realized by the students who constitute the target population addressed by a particular peer-counseling program. The opportunity to share experiences, feelings, and outlook with a peer helper whose similarity in age may allow for greater understanding is a valuable component of the developmental guidance required by any student. The presence of an effective and valued role model, as well as the added element of social support in informal situations, also contributes significantly to the promotion of personal growth.

Peer counseling approaches are particularly well suited to the elementary school. This view is based on the notion that the elementary school child is uniquely different from junior and senior high school students. Some of these differences produce distinctive needs that can be met through a peer relationship. Muro and Dinkmeyer (1977) discussed numerous reasons why elementary school children require the attention of special helpers. One of the ideas they cited is the very nature of the child. The elementary school child has limited freedom at home and school, where adults are mainly in control and directing. Experiences of the child in these settings can be quite stressful and require a source for disclosure.

Egocentricity dominates and characterizes the thinking process of a child (Muro & Dinkmeyer, 1977). Adult logic and simply lack of time produce frustration and lead to limited and ineffective communication between children and adults. Children possess the skills to communicate effectively, but the recipient of disclosure must be able to comprehend the world of the child. For many students only another peer will be available to take the time, to try to understand, and maybe help.

References

Anderson, R. (1976). Peer facilitation: History and issues. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 16–33.

Bachman, R. (1975). Elementary school children's perception of helpers and their characteristics. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 10*, 103–109.

Bandura, A. (1969). *Principles of behavior modification*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bogat, A. G., Jones, J. W., & Jason, L. A. (1980). School transitions: Preventive intervention following an elementary school closing. *Journal of Community Psychology, 8*, 343–352.

Bowman, R. P., & Myrick, R. D. (1980). I'm a junior counselor having lots of fun. *School Counselor, 28*, 31–33.

Brammer, L. (1979). *The helping relationship: Process and skills*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Brown, W. (1974). Effectiveness of paraprofessionals: The evidence. *Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53*, 257–263.

Carr, R. A., & Saunders, G. (1980). *Peer counseling starter kit*. Victoria, B.C.: University of Victoria.

Dineen, J. P., Clark, H. B., & Risley, T. R. (1977). Peer tutoring among elementary students: Educational benefits to the tutor. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 10*, 231–238.

Edwards, S. (1976). Student helpers: A multilevel facilitation program. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 53–58.

Egan, G. (1975). *The skilled helper: A model for systematic helping and interpersonal relating*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Gumaer, J. (1973). Peer-facilitated groups. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 8*, 4–11.

Gumaer, J. (1976). Training peer facilitators. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 27–36.

Hoffman, L. (1976). Peers as group counseling models. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 37–44.

Jacobs, E., Masson, R., & Vass, M. (1975). *A peer counseling training model* (pamphlet). Martinsburg, WV: Berkeley County School District.

Jacobs, E., Masson, R., & Vass, M. (1976). Peer helpers: An easy way to get started. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 68–71.

Keat, D. (1976). Training as multimodal treatment for peers. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 7–13.

Lippitt, R., & Gold, M. (1959). Classroom social structure as a mental health problem. *Journal of Social Issues, 15*, 40–49.

Mastroianni, M., & Dinkmeyer, D. (1980). Developing an interest in others through peer facilitation. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 14*, 214–221.

Mahon, B., & Altmann, H. (1977). Skill training: Cautions and recommendations. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 17*, 42–50.

McCann, B. (1975). Peer counseling: An approach to psychological education. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 9*, 180–187.

McIntyre, D. L., Thomas, G. H., & Borgen, W. A. (1982). A peer counselling model for use in secondary schools. *Canadian Counsellor, 17*, 29–36.

Muro, J. J., & Dinkmeyer, C. D. (1977). *Counseling in the elementary and middle schools.* Dubuque, IA: Brown.

Myrick, R., & Erney, T. (1978). *Caring and sharing: Becoming a peer facilitator.* Minneapolis: Educational Media Corp.

Northway, M. L., & Weld, L. (1957). *Sociometric testing.* Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Pyle, K. (1977). Developing a teen-peer facilitator program. *School Counselor, 24*, 278–282.

Strom, R., & Engelbrecht, C. (1974). Creative peer teaching. *Journal of Creative Behaviour, 8*, 93–100.

Varenhorst, B. (1974). Training adolescents as peer counselors. *Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53*, 271–275.

Weise, R. (1976). Diary of a peer facilitator program. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 62–66.

Successful Training for Elementary and Middle School Peer Helpers

Chari Campbell

Perhaps the most critical component in any peer helper program is training. The procedures chosen to train students can make a difference between a successful program and an unsuccessful one. Although a number of peer programs were launched in the 1970s, some that lacked planning and organization soon floundered and then disappeared. In others, however, the planners ensured success and support for their programs by being more systematic in their approach, defining the training programs in detail, and selecting the peer projects and tasks carefully (Myrick & Bowman, 1981). A growing body of research indicates that a more systematic approach to teaching helping skills will lead to more successful interventions (Bowman & Myrick, 1980; Briskin & Anderson, 1973; Kern & Kirby, 1971; Kum & Gal, 1976; McCann, 1975; Vogelsong, 1978). Gains in self-esteem, classroom behavior, and academic achievement are reported for peer helpers and their helpees in programs that have carefully defined goals and objectives of training (Myrick & Bowman, 1981).

What are the characteristics of successful peer helper programs? An examination of such programs reveals that the length and number of training sessions is a matter of individual preference. Some helping projects seem to require more preparation than others. Depending on the counselor's schedule and faculty support, training can vary in length from four 1/2-hour sessions to over twenty 45-minute training sessions.

Depending on the counselor's orientation, training programs may vary in their theoretical bases from Adlerian or Rogerian to behavioral. In addition, the perceived or assessed needs of the school will determine whether the training focuses on techniques for working with targeted students with problems or on skills for leading developmental guidance activities with small or large groups.

Tailored to the Setting

Peer helper programs should reflect schools in which they are established. More specifically, the needs, attitudes, and values of the students and the teachers determine the types of projects in which the peer helpers will participate. It is wise to solicit faculty and administrative input before determining the goals and objectives of a training program. After the needs of the school have been

assessed, a training program may be designed that specifically addresses those needs. This approach of tailoring the program to the particular demands of the setting will help to ensure support for the program.

Tailored to the Task

Peer helpers can be trained to work in various helping roles. Myrick and Bowman (1981) categorized the helping roles into four groups: student, assistants, tutors, special friends, and small-group leaders.

Student assistants work indirectly with other students by assisting teachers, librarians, or office personnel with specific tasks. Some student assistants, such as school safety patrol leaders, help to supervise other children. Student tutors work directly with other students, either individually or in small groups. Tutors build and reinforce basic skills in academic subject areas. Special friends are assigned on a one-to-one basis to help students with special needs. For example, a special friend may help to draw out a shy child, motivate an underachiever, or help a new child feel more comfortable in the school. Small-group leaders direct or codirect such activities as small-group discussions, role-playing activities, or puppet activities.

Although some basic helping skills can be useful for students involved in any of these roles, other skills and concepts may also be needed for specific projects. Thus, the content of training sessions may vary from project to project. For example, Myrick and Bowman (1981) described a training model that focuses upon basic relationship and communication skills during the first phase of training and then gives students the opportunity to practice for specific helping projects using role playing and other techniques.

Additionally, the Myrick and Bowman model suggested that training be arranged so that students can participate in some structured beginning projects after initial training. Then, after further training, students may become involved in more sophisticated projects. These authors emphasized that it is the training and the projects themselves that characterize most programs as either beginning, intermediate, or advanced.

Tailored to the Counselor's Style

There are many possible directions a peer helper program can take. The types of helping projects that can be performed by children helping children seem limited only by the program leader's creativity. Rockwell and Dustin (1979) pointed out that no single program can include every option and that counselors must select from several choices.

A program should be tailored to the personal and professional style of its coordinator. The leader's preferences for certain counseling theories will be reflected in the peer training program. Because most peer program leaders are counselors, they should also be aware of their own strengths as professional helpers. They can also include some of their favorite counseling activities in the program. This personalization of the peer training will give strength and energy to the program. Some counselors have discovered that their own skills become sharpened and polished as they become involved in training students. This is one of the many benefits for the counselor of a well-planned peer training program.

Selection of Students

The selection of students is an integral part of training. A review of the literature suggests a wide variance in approach to the selection process. Bowman (1980) selected a variety of students for different purposes, including those with: (a) high academic achievement—they needed and wanted a challenge; (b) high motivation—they especially expressed interest in the program; (c) low self-concept—they needed more success experiences; (d) negative school attitude—they needed to be involved in a positive school experience; and (e) ability to reach out—they cared about others.

Others found the use of sociograms helpful (e.g., Gumaer, 1973; Kern & Kirby, 1971; McCann, 1975). Some used teacher input for the selection of peer helpers (e.g., Briskin & Anderson, 1973; Gumaer, 1973). Rockwell and Dustin (1979) suggested using self-selection, teacher and student input, counselor recommendations, and some objective criteria for student selection. Hoffman (1976) selected students on the basis of leadership abilities observed by the counselor in informal settings around the school. Some counselors, however, reported successful peer programs without systematic selection of trainees (e.g., Delworth, Moore, Mullich, & Leone, 1974; Golin & Safferstone, 1971; Gray & Tindall, 1974; Varenhorst, 1973).

Regardless of the selection process used, however, the effectiveness of the peer programs seems to depend on the thoroughness of the training. A systematic approach to preparing students for specific tasks builds program success.

Some Successful Programs

Many training programs have been described in the literature. The following descriptions of programs are not intended to provide a comprehensive list but

illustrate the variety of approaches to peer training that have been used successfully. The programs described use three approaches to peer training: preparing students to work with individuals, with small groups, and with whole classrooms.

Working with Individuals

There are many valuable projects for which peer helpers can be trained to assist other students on a one-to-one basis. These projects include helping with new student orientation, being available for students who need a friend to talk to, reinforcing students' completion of academic assignments, and tutoring in an academic subject. Training for these projects must be designed to prepare students for the particular task. It is suggested that peer helpers be trained in groups even when their projects may involve working with students on a one-to-one basis.

In one case, McCann (1975) developed a training program to prepare sixth graders to work individually with other students in a school drop-in center. The program consisted of eight 1-hour sessions that focused on listening skills, nonverbal communication, self-disclosure, reflective listening, and developing alternative courses of action when faced with a problem. The center was open to fifth-grade students twice a week during recess or lunch. Kum and Gal (1976) cited a similar program in which sixth-grade students were trained in ten 1-hour sessions, focusing on constructive communication and decision-making skills.

In another example, Briskin and Anderson (1973) developed a program to teach behavioral principles to peer helpers. The training program consisted of six 1/2-hour sessions and included such topics as recognizing targeted behavior, administering a time-out procedure, and giving positive reinforcement for appropriate behavior. After the training sessions were completed, the sixth-grade peer helpers were assigned to work as contingency managers for two disruptive third graders. Each of the six peer helpers spent 1/2 hour each day in the third-grade classroom. When they observed one of the targeted behaviors, the time-out procedure was implemented by briefly removing the misbehaving child from the classroom. Appropriate behavior, however, was reinforced with compliments. The data collected throughout the 18-day program suggested that peer helpers can be trained to be highly successful in using contingency management procedures.

Working as Small-Group Facilitators

Following an Adlerian approach, Kern and Kirby (1971) trained fifth- and sixth-grade students to work as peer helpers. Their training program, which

consisted of three 1-hour sessions, focused on developing the skill to encourage positive behavior in other students, identifying the goals of misbehavior, and exploring more effective ways of behaving. After completing training, the peer helpers assisted the counselor with group counseling for poorly adjusted peers.

Gumaer (1973) described a nine-session training program that prepared fifth-grade students to facilitate small-group discussions with second graders. Training focused on developing communication skills. More specifically, students were taught to clarify, reflect, and give feedback. After practicing these skills for several weeks, the students were asked to explore topics such as minority groups, stereotypes, and prejudice. The peer helpers then led small-group discussions with second graders.

Hoffman's program (1976) also emphasized preparing students to work as small-group facilitators. Ten 1-hour training sessions included such topics as helping others talk, giving respect, accepting others, listening for feelings, being aware of one's own feelings, words, and actions, and supporting student efforts at behavioral change within and outside the group.

Leading Class Discussions

Some counselors have trained peer helpers to lead or assist with guidance activities in the classroom. Such a project should include very structured activities such as those provided in published guidance materials. Training for this kind of peer involvement might first include rehearsal of the activities. Then peers might practice leading the activities with a small group of children. After this training the same activities can be used with more confidence in an entire classroom of students.

Another way to train peers systematically to lead classroom guidance activities is to divide up the activity and allow three or four peers to share responsibility for the various tasks. For example, one peer helper could read a guidance story, a second might then lead a discussion, and a third peer could present a role-playing activity on the topic. Familiarity with the guidance materials allow for a more smooth delivery in the large group.

Conclusion

The peer helper movement is no longer in its infancy. In the past decade a growing number of elementary and middle school counselors have been involved in training of peer helpers. With greater experience in teaching children helping skills, their training programs have expanded, evolved, and gained wider acceptance.

As the peer helper movement has gained momentum more presentations on this topic have been appearing on programs at state and national guidance conferences each year. Beginning in March 1983, a periodical devoted entirely to peer helper programs, the *Peer Facilitator Quarterly* (Bowman, 1983), became available. As counselors find their own ways to train students systematically in helping skills and develop their own peer helper programs, they will find their guidance more effectively extended to all students in their schools.

References

Bowman, R. P. (1980). The peer facilitator movement: Its impact on our schools. *Florida Personnel and Guidance Association Guidelines, 25*, 2.

Bowman, R. P. (1983). *Peer Facilitator Quarterly, 1*, 1–16.

Bowman, R. P., & Myrick, R. D. (1980). I'm a junior counselor, having lots of fun. *School Counselor, 28*, 31–38.

Briskin, A. S., & Anderson, E. M. (1973). Students as contingency managers. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 7*, 262–268.

Delworth, J., Moore, M., Mullich, J., & Leone, P. (1974). Training student volunteers. *Personnel and Guidance Journal, 53*, 57–60.

Golin, N., & Safferstone, M. (1971). *Peer group counseling: A manual for trainers*. Miami: Dade County Public Schools.

Gray, H. D., & Tindall, J. (1974). Communication training study: A model for training junior high school counselors. *School Counselor, 22*, 107–112.

Gumaer, J. (1973). Peer facilitated groups. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 8*, 4–11.

Hoffman, L. R. (1976). Peers as group counseling models. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 37–44.

Kern, R., & Kirby, J. (1971). Utilizing peer helper influence in group counseling. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 6*, 70–75.

Kum, W., & Gal, E. (1976). Programs in practice. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 11*, 74.

McCann, B. G. (1975). Peer counseling: An approach to psychological education. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 9*, 180–187.

Myrick, R. D., & Bowman, R. P. (1981). *Children helping children: Teaching students to become friendly helpers*. Minneapolis: Educational Media Corporation.

Rockwell, L. K., & Dustin, R. (1979). Building a model for training peer counselors. *School Counselor, 26*, 311–316.

Varenhorst, B. (1973). Middle/junior high school counselor's corner. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 8*, 54–57.

Vogelsong, E. L. (1978). Relationship enhancement training for children. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 12*, 272–279.

Classroom Use of Selected Children's Books: Prosocial Development in Young Children

Mary L. Trepanier
Jane A. Romatowski

The elementary classroom is a busy marketplace where ideas and values are constantly exchanged. In this marketplace the teacher has the opportunity to use the interactions of children with peers, with adults, and with the curriculum for promoting cognitive and social growth. The creative use of such interactions and of the curriculum can increase children's awareness of the perspective of others and promote more altruistic behavior. Since cognitive and social skills are emergent in young children, positive experiences during the elementary school years are critical for their full development.

Psychological theory and past research supports the belief that prosocial development and altruistic behavior is emerging during the elementary school years. Altruistic behavior, such as sharing, requires the ability to take the perspective of another (perspective-taking and role-taking), to understand others' feelings and emotions (empathy), and to evaluate others' needs and decide on an appropriate action (critical thinking) (Mussen & Eisenberg-Berg, 1977). Several studies report that perspective-taking, role-taking, reasoning, and empathy, are positively related to altruistic behavior (Buckley, Siegel, & Nell, 1979; Levine & Hoffman, 1975; Marcus, Telleen, & Roke, 1979; Rubin & Schneider, 1973). According to Piaget (1926) these cognitive and social skills generally develop during the period of concrete operations (7–12 years). With increasing age, children become less egocentric and able to attend to a perspective other than their own. This heightening of awareness about others is possible through the use of selected children's books. Therefore, the purpose of this research was to investigate whether a classroom-oriented intervention technique using selected children's books could effect a positive change in the prosocial development of young children, age 5–7.

The specific intervention technique in this study consisted of reading selected children's books and using planned critical thinking questions by kindergarten and first-grade classroom teachers during regularly scheduled story-telling times. All the books focused directly on sharing or an interpersonal conflict that was successfully resolved through sharing. The planned critical thinking questions throughout the story focused the children's attention on: (a) the interpersonal conflict, (b) the feelings of each character, (c) the cause of the feelings, (d) the resolution of the conflict by sharing, and (e) the change in

the feelings of the characters as a result of sharing. Following the reading of the story, the teachers emphasized the importance of sharing and its role in resolving interpersonal conflicts.

This training technique was chosen because it is directly applicable to classroom settings and because its essential components have been identified by prior research as significant for the development of altruism. These components are specified below:

1. Stories and questions should direct the child's attention to the feelings and emotions of the characters and elicit empathy and altruism (Howard & Barnett, 1979; Iannoti, 1978; Staub, 1971).
2. The perspective-taking tasks should be within the developmental capabilities of 5- to 7-year-old children (Urberg & Docherty, 1976).
3. The questioning should encourage children to use hypothesis-testing and reasoning skills to solve a social conflict (Rubin & Schneider, 1973).
4. The conflict resolution through sharing and the verbal reinforcement of this by the teacher should present an appropriate model of prosocial behavior to the children (Bryan, 1975).

We anticipated that through such a classroom training technique children's development of sharing could be positively influenced. Those children in the experimental group receiving training would show a change in performance from pretesting to posttesting. This change would be measured by analyzing the responses to two-conflict-situation pictures and accompanying story dilemmas. Those children in the control group receiving parallel story experiences that did not focus on sharing were not expected to show a pretest to posttest change.

Method

Participants

Initially, 99 children in one kindergarten and three first-grade classrooms were pretested for base level of perspective-taking and sharing. These children were drawn from three inner-city schools located in a large metropolitan area. Those children scoring high on sharing (i.e., giving a sharing response as a first response both times) were not included in the study. Of the remaining 64 children, 33 were chosen for the control group and 31 for the experimental group. Of the respondents, there were 39 boys and 25 girls ranging in age from 5.2 years to 7.5 years with a mean of 6.7 years.

Procedure

Pretesting and Posttesting. The participants in the experimental and control groups were pretested and posttested by the researchers to determine the participants' levels on sharing and perspective-taking. Testing of each participant was conducted in a room separate from the classroom.

The tasks involved the use of two conflict-situation pictures with accompanying stories. Picture 1 and its story concerned a conflict between a bigger boy (Todd) and smaller boy (Billy) playing ball on the playground. The picture depicted the bigger boy holding the ball out of reach of the smaller boy. Picture 2 and its story involved a girl (Shirley) holding a double popsicle and noticing her friend (Tommy) looking at it.

For each task, participants were shown the picture, told a story about the picture, and then asked the following questions:

1. How do you think (Potential Receiver [the character in the picture-story who could be the recipient of a sharing act]) feels?
2. Why does (Potential Receiver) feel that way?
3. How can you tell (Potential Receiver) feels that way?
4. How do you think (Potential Sharer [the character in the picture-story who could be the sharing agent]) feels?
5. Why does (Potential Sharer) feel that way?
6. How can you tell (Potential Sharer) feels that way?
7. What do you think will happen next?
8. What else could (Potential Sharer) have done?
9. What else could have (Potential Receiver) done?

Care was taken by the experimenters to describe all the situations in a neutral tone without suggestion of feelings or solutions.

Training of Teachers. Three participating teachers were trained in the use of the intervention technique for the experimental group and in the parallel story experience for the control group. This training consisted of listening to an audiotape of a sample story, discussing story guidelines for each story, and identifying the parallel story experiences for the control group.

Intervention Technique. During the intervention technique, the experimental group heard a total of 9 selected books focusing on sharing over a 3-week period (3 books per week). Each story was interrupted at preselected critical intervals to permit the participants to label the feelings of story characters, identify the causes for feelings and behaviors, solve the conflict situation, and explain the successful resolution of the conflict. At the end of each story, the teacher emphasized the role that sharing played in the story or in resolving the conflict.

Control Group Experience. The parallel experiences for the control group included the reading of 9 stories that did not focus on sharing over a 3-week period (3 books per week). Further, the stories were interrupted for questions and discussion of story events only.

Materials. For the intervention, 9 readily accessible children's books were selected by the researchers. Criteria for selection were: age-appropriate; story characters with easily identifiable feelings; a clear statement of the conflict; and a successful resolution of the conflict through sharing. Titles of books used in the study appear in the Appendix. In addition, 9 books not focusing on sharing were selected for the control group.

Results

Responses to Pictures 1 and 2 were scored using the same taxonomy for each picture. After two scorers independently scored the protocols, the researchers found the interrater agreement on the questions was 93%. Disagreements were resolved by consensus.

Chi square analysis of pretest responses for each question suggested that there was no significant relationship between group membership (experimental or control) and response. Therefore, the groups were essentially equivalent on the pretest.

Posttest responses were also analyzed using the chi square technique. Because the questions and the scoring taxonomy were identical for Pictures 1 and 2, the analysis for each question reflects a summary of the data across both pictures. The scoring taxonomy used for each question and the results follow.

When asked to label the feelings of the characters in Pictures 1 and 2 and to identify causes for the feelings, no relationship between the group and response was found. Both the experimental and the control groups were competent in identifying the characters' feelings and the causes for these feelings. This finding of no relationship on the posttest was not unexpected inasmuch as a high level of competency for both groups was demonstrated on the pretest. Posttest performance change was limited by this ceiling effect.

Next, participants were asked to identify the source of their information regarding the potential receiver's feelings and the potential sharer's feelings (How can you tell Potential Receiver and Potential Sharer felt that way?). Responses were categorized as appropriate or inappropriate references to facial expressions or bodily gestures. The analysis for the potential receiver question suggested a significant relationship between group membership and response category ($x^2(1) = 5.337$, $p < .05$). In order to determine which of the cells was contributing significantly to this relationship, cell chi squares were converted

into a standardized residual with an associated probability level. The standardized residual can be interpreted in a manner similar to a z score with 0 as the mean and a standard deviation of 1 (Everitt, 1977). An examination of the standardized residuals suggested that the experimental group (residual = 2.32, $p < .05$) was significantly more accurate than the control group in identifying their source of information. While 48% of the control group correctly referred to the facial or bodily characteristics of the receiver, 71% of the experimental group correctly referred to facial characteristics. A similar trend was evident for the question regarding the source of information for the potential sharer's feelings. While 61% of the experimental group correctly referred to facial characteristics, only 48% of the control group correctly referred to facial characteristics.

Responses to the questions, What happened next? and What could have happened next?, were categorized as a sharing response, an aggressive response, or other (avoidance of problem, don't know response). Though chi squares were not statistically significant, it is interesting to note some differences between the groups. While 50% of the experimental group gave a sharing response to the What happened next? question, only 39% of the control group responded similarly. For the What could have happened next? question, a larger percentage of participants in the experimental group (21%) as compared to the control group (13%) moved from an aggressive response to a sharing response.

Discussion

The results of this study suggested that children's prosocial development can be facilitated through a classroom-oriented intervention technique. Although not dramatic, changes were evident in children's verbal sharing responses as a result of the teacher reading selected children's books and asking critical thinking questions. This was evident on the posttest because more children in the experimental group than in the control group verbally suggested sharing as a solution to interpersonal conflicts.

As anticipated, given previous research (Kurdek, 1977; Selman, 1971; Urberg & Docherty, 1976), these results also suggested that children between the ages of 5–7 years were very competent at labeling their feelings. Participants experienced more difficulty in identifying the source of their information regarding the feelings of others and citing the cause of these feelings of others, specifically in identifying facial expressions and bodily gestures. The intervention technique was very successful in facilitating development in this area. This seems quite reasonable given the training technique used. The critical questions designed for use with the books at preselected intervals in the story

allowed for such development. Given the age of the participants and their transitional phase of development with respect to the identification of facial clues as a source of information about feelings (Shantz, 1975), it was not surprising that responses were qualitatively better after training.

Dealing with changes in social cognition in young children in a short period of time is, at best, difficult. Clearly, the topic is worthy of longer study, given the amount of success realized in this 3-week period. An expansion of the ideas encountered in the books into other activities, such as role-playing, sociodrama, language-experience stories, and others, may have enhanced the processing of relevant information.

Classroom teachers interested in encouraging prosocial development and altruistic behavior in young children will find this technique to be easily learned. The materials needed for replicating this study are readily accessible and easily incorporated into the curriculum. Adaptation of this technique to one's particular classroom setting will certainly result in a positive growth experience for children.

References

Bryan, J. H. (1975). Children's cooperation and helping behaviors. In M. Hetherington (Ed.), *Review of child development research: Vol. 5*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Buckley, N., Siegel, L. S., & Ness, S. (1979). Egocentrism, empathy, and altruistic behavior in young children. *Developmental Psychology, 15*, 329–330.

Everitt, B. S. (1977). *The analysis of contingency tables*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Howard, J. A., & Barnett, M. A. (1979, May). *Arousal of empathy and subsequent generosity in young children*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Midwest Psychological Association, Chicago.

Iannotti, R. J. (1978). Effect of role-taking experiences on role taking, empathy, altruism, and aggression. *Developmental Psychology, 14*, 119–124.

Kurdek, L. A. (1977). Structural components and intellectual correlates of cognitive perspective-taking in first- through fourth-grade children. *Child Development, 48*, 1503–1511.

Levine, L. E., & Hoffman, M. L. (1975). Empathy and cooperation in 4-year-olds. *Developmental Psychology, 11*, 533–534.

Marcus, R. F., Telleen, S., & Roke, E. J. (1979). Relation between cooperation and empathy in young children. *Developmental Psychology, 15*, 346–347.

Mussen, P., & Eisenberg-Berg, N. (1977). *Roots of caring, sharing and helping*. San Francisco: W. H. Frieman.

Piaget, J. (1926). *The language and thought of the child*. New York: Harcourt Brace.

Rubin, K. H., & Schneider, F. W. (1973). The relationship between moral judgment, egocentrism and altruistic behavior. *Child Development, 44*, 661–665.

Selman, R. L. (1971). Taking another's perspective: Role-taking development in early childhood. *Child Development, 42*, 1721–1734.

Shantz, C. U. (1975). The development of social cognition. In M. Hetherington (Ed.), *Review of Child Development Research: Vol. 5*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Staub, E. (1971). The use of role-playing and induction in children's learning of helping and sharing behavior. *Child Development, 42*, 805–816.

Urberg, K. A., & Docherty, E. M. (1976). Development of role-taking skills in young children. *Developmental Psychology, 12*, 198–203.

Appendix

Books Used in Study

Consall, B. (1964). *It's mine*. New York: Harper & Row.

Brennar, B., & Ungerer, T. (1966). *Mr. Tall and Mrs. Small*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Cole, W. (1970). *Aunt Bella's umbrella*. New York: Doubleday.

Keats, E. J. (1967). *Peter's chair*. New York: Harper & Row.

Lionni, L. (1967). *Frederick*. New York: Random House.

Scott, A. H. (1972). *On mother's lap*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Silverstein, S. (1964). *The giving tree*. New York: Harper & Row.

Steig, W. (1971). *Amos and Boris*. New York: Farrar & Giroux.

Steptoe, J. (1969). *Stevie*. New York: Harper & Row.

Zolotow, C. (1958). *Do you know what I'll do?* New York: Harper & Row.

Chapter 10

Counseling Issues Related to Human Relations in a Changing World

Issues for elementary school counselors to consider about human relations in a changing world:

1. Discuss the following statement: "Learning how to get along with others is the most important part of education."
2. You are a counselor who is interested in developing a peer helping group in your school. Discuss how you would select and train students to become peer helpers. How would you get support from teachers and parents for your peer helping program? How would you evaluate the program?
3. How can elementary school counselors use programs such as *Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO)* to improve human relations at school?
4. How might counselors use video technology to improve relationships between children and adults?
5. How can elementary school counselors use children's drawings as part of a human relations program in the school?
6. What role does self-esteem play in children's relationships?
7. Discuss the possible uses of books to improve children's social skills.